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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

THE EFFECTS OF EVALUATION ON
REQUIRED COUNSELLING
INTERVIEWS

by

C

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A THESIS

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To Ann and Richard Kimmis who wanted something more for
their son.

ABSTRACT

This study was designed to examine the effects of counsellor-selection (evaluation) as opposed to client or self-selection (nonevaluation) within the context of the required counselling interview. Former students who were applying for readmission to university after having failed a year were assigned to one of two treatment groups (evaluation and nonevaluation) and to one of four counsellors.

In the evaluation treatment subjects were tested, then interviewed by a counsellor. On the basis of the interview, test results and other material available the counsellor was required to make a written recommendation to the administration concerning the client's chances for success.

In the nonevaluation treatment the subjects received the same test battery and were interviewed by a counsellor. However, in this treatment there was no counsellor recommendation. Instead, the onus for selecting whether or not the subject was to return to university rested with the subject.

All of the interviews ($N = 99$) were recorded and independent judges rated empathy, confrontation and client depth of self-exploration according to instruments developed by Carkhuff (1969). Subjects also completed the Counselling Evaluation Inventory.

Directional hypotheses consistent with the client-centered position were stated. It was expected that counsellor empathy and client depth of self-exploration would be higher under the nonevaluative rather than the evaluative treatment. In addition, client ratings on the Counselling Evaluation Inventory should be more positive for the nonevaluation condition. A nondirectional hypothesis for confrontation was also stated.

With respect to empathy, confrontation, client self-exploration and the Counselling Climate Factor of the Counselling Evaluation Inventory there was no difference between the two treatment groups. There was, however, a significant difference between the two institutional treatments (nonevaluation > evaluation) on the Client Satisfaction Factor of the Counselling Evaluation Inventory.

While methodological problems cast a shadow over all the findings, there was very little support for the client-centered position that evaluation per se produces a negative atmosphere within the counselling interview. On the other hand, subjects seemed to feel more comfortable and satisfied with the nonevaluative treatment. The overall effects of this finding are not straightforward and further empirical clarification was suggested.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Since its introduction into North America at about the turn of the century, applied psychology has been tied to the evaluative enterprise, including testing, diagnosis and personnel selection. Before World War II applied psychologists were primarily involved in the assessment of intelligence and psychological diagnosis, in support of psychiatric treatment programs (Reisman, 1966). The use of intellectual, personality, and vocational tests were considered to be the exclusive domain of psychologists (Sundberg, Tyler, & Taplin, 1973).

During World War II hardly an adult male of military potentiality escaped psychological testing (Reisman, 1966). Psychologists were involved in numerous projects; for example, the testing and screening of candidates for the Office of Strategic Services (OSS) and the selection and training of pilots, officer candidates, and skilled support personnel (navigators, radar repairmen, etc.).

After the War psychologists moved into treatment programs that had been previously restricted to medical personnel, because there were simply not enough trained medical staff to deal with the psychiatric problems involved in rehabilitating veterans, and because vocational rehabilitation and counselling were not relevant to the medical enterprise. Thus, psychologists functioned as both diagnosticians and therapists. The "baby boom" right after the War caused an enormous expansion in the field of education, and there was a consequent growth in counselling psychology.

During the 1950's psychological assessment was rapidly expanding.

If there were doubts about the appropriateness and usefulness of psychological assessment, then the public and most practitioners did not express them (Sundberg, Tyler, & Taplin, 1973). However, in the late fifties and early sixties psychological assessment came under a great deal of public and professional criticism. Four books spearheaded the attack: The Organization Man (Whyte, 1956), The Myth of Mental Illness (Szaz, 1961), The Brainwatchers (Cross, 1962), and The Tyranny of Testing (Hoffmann, 1962). The issues were not always clearly differentiated from one another, but at least four primary areas of concern have been articulated: (1) Discrimination with respect to minority groups and socioeconomic class. (2) Lack of validity; i.e., that psychological tests do not measure what they purport to measure and that many selection processes are not effective screening mechanisms. (3) Invasion of privacy. (4) Aiding conformity; i.e., the range of talents in most selection processes are limited to easily identifiable characteristics and often unique but capable individuals are denied access because they don't match the evaluator's list of characteristics.

The criticisms concerning validity and discrimination are often linked. If evaluators and their instruments of appraisal are divining actual talents, then discrimination per se is the purpose of evaluation. However, if the instruments and/or processes of evaluation are invalid or of questionable validity, then the likelihood of unfair discrimination obviously increases. Many of the areas of assessment (diagnosis, personnel selection and predicting academic success) seem to fall into the gray areas of questionable validity (Dailey, 1971).

Critics claim that the instruments used and/or devised by psychol-

ogists and the processes of evaluation unfairly discriminate against minority groups and lower socioeconomic classes. This occurs because they are based on attitudes, values and experiences which are not common to these groups (Gardner, 1961; Dailey, 1971). Thus, the instruments and processes of evaluation are pictured by their critics as both ineffective and prejudicial--they do not predict and they perpetuate social injustice.

As noted, there have been criticisms aimed at the validity of psychological evaluation. These criticisms range from a lack of correlation between diagnosis and treatment (Szaz, 1961), to the inability of school counsellors to predict academic success (Watley, 1967). Holt (1967) has presented impressive data to support his conclusion that "diagnostic testing is in a state of funk" (p. 444). Kaplin, Colarelli, Gross, Leventhal, and Segal (1970) concluded that psychological evaluation has undergone diminishing emphasis in professional meetings, publications and graduate programs because of a lack of scientific validity. Meehl (1954) and many others have often demonstrated the overall supremacy of actuarial as opposed to clinical predictions. Finally, Sundberg, Tyler, and Taplin (1973) have suggested that the recent changes in employment patterns within the profession of clinical psychology have been to a large extent the results of a de-emphasis and dropping of outmoded assessment practices.

Brim (1965) and Neulinger (1966) conducted surveys of the public's attitude towards psychological testing. Brim (1965) found that most of those surveyed felt they had the right to withhold information of personal nature from their employers. Furthermore, the public expressed concern that psychological screening should be limited to task

relevant material (Neulinger, 1966). Most of those surveyed also expressed concern that material of a personal nature contained within files could somehow be used against them (Brim, 1965). From within the profession both Gross (1962), Whyte (1954), and many others have strongly argued against the use of personality and projective tests as instruments of appraisal for educational and occupational decision making. Both of these authors felt that the "rights" of the individuals had been violated by the misuses of psychological tests.

Personality tests used in personnel selection have been blamed for producing conformity. The criticism was first popularized by Whyte's The Organization Man (1956). In brief, the evaluation enterprise has been criticized for limiting the horizons of society by screening from the upper echelons creative but eccentric individuals and substituting for them less talented but more socially acceptable types (Whyte, 1956; Gross, 1962).

The issues raised by these criticisms are extremely complex, contentious and to a large extent generally unresolved. These criticisms have, however, forced a reexamination of the evaluation enterprise in clinical psychology (Sundberg, Tyler, & Taplin, 1973) and in educational, corporate and governmental personnel selection and management (Dailey, 1971). In addition to the above concerns, some comments with respect to psychologist's less obvious involvement in institutional decision making would seem to be in order.

Essentially, most institutional decision making (governmental, corporate and educational) is based upon credentials such as age, verbal aptitude, sex, grade point average, outgoingness, management orientation, etc. Access to desirable goals, such as promotion and pro-

fessional membership usually depends upon a gatekeeper (administrator) evaluating candidates on the basis of their credentials and a rewarding (approving access) to those with the proper credentials, while withholding gratification (denying access) for the unqualified. Essentially, psychologists in a great many settings help to determine the criterion for judging credentials. In many cases they do not act directly as gatekeepers. Instead, they often design and initiate programs, then relinquish control of these programs to the institutional client. Thus, it is possible for a relatively small number of psychologists to effect the lives of a great many people.

Critics of the psychologist's role in these procedures seem to feel that most psychologists mistakenly assume that government and corporate institutions, especially the latter, are concerned with the validity of assessment (Dailey, 1971). This assumption has been quite strongly challenged by Baken (1972), May (1966), and Dailey (1971). They contend that most institutions are concerned with their own survival and enhancement, and these concerns often preclude or diminish justice and/or service to the community or the individual. As government and corporate structures proliferate and grow larger, individual needs seem to be less important (Baken, 1972). Rules of conduct and promotion become depersonalized in the name of objectivity, and the end product appears to be mass alienation, tension, uncertainty, distrust, and a loss of self-esteem (May, 1966).

Many of the above listed criticisms have their roots in so-called third force or humanistic psychology (e.g., Baken, 1972; May, 1966). Counter proposals to evaluation have been made by Rollo May (1966), Carl Rogers (1951), and David Baken (1972). These proposals, which

appear to be very general and abstract, center around the building of a more permissive (less evaluative) society. Perhaps as a reaction to a highly competitive, rule dominated western culture, stress is placed upon affective (emotional) rather than effective development (May, 1966). The present study has its roots in the spirit of zeitgeist of the aforementioned criticisms and is based upon assumptions which are more or less congruent with a nonevaluative, permissive orientation. A more detailed discussion of this position with a focus on counselling will be presented in Chapter II.

The issues surrounding the evaluation enterprise have created divisions within the profession of psychology. In opposition to the humanists there is within the profession strong support for the evaluation position (Cronbach & Glesser, 1965; Meehl, 1959; Anastasi, 1967).

In all fairness to proponents of evaluation, such as Anastasi (1967) and Forehand (1971), it should be noted that in practice the assessment enterprise has drifted away from academic psychology. In everyday decision making, methodological concerns with reliability and validity stressed by academics often diminish and practical concerns take their place (Cronbach & Glesser, 1965). Thus, time and money and not goodness of fit appear to be the ultimate criteria for institutional decision making (Brodgen & Taylor, 1965). In sum, many of the criticisms aimed at the evaluation enterprise concern, in part, a lack of methodological rigor. This deficit is most strongly condemned by the pro-assessment camp (Anastasi, 1967).

Anastasi (1967) has comprehensively spoken to the above listed criticisms, and further recapitulation within the context would not

seem warranted. However, Forehand (1971) has succinctly summarized the utilitarian stance taken by many of the proponents of evaluation:

A functioning society demands a wide range and diversity of talent, and it demands that its role be taken by persons who have both relevant talents and the personal qualities necessary for the appropriate, effective exercise for these talents.... If we grant such diversities, and if our society rejects a solution based upon hereditary and other a prior stratification, then the matching of persons and roles become a gigantic casting process, a process in which auditions will occur, human behavior will be assessed wisely or unwisely, validly or invalidly, with or without the complicity of psychological tests. (p. 534)

In reply to criticisms of the assessment enterprise Forehand (1971) responds with both question and answer. "How shall we select and place individuals in positions assuring fairness to the individual and a reasonable expectation of competent performance of roles?" (p. 536). The answer to this question appears to be in the development of objective and fair psychological tests and other instruments and processes of appraisal and in the competent application of them (Forehand, 1971; Anastasi, 1967).

In brief, there exists a difference in focus between the two positions. The anti-assessment-humanistic orientation is concerned with self-actualization and the affective needs of mankind. On the other hand, the pro-assessment utilitarians generally do not speak directly to the self-actualization issue nor do they emphasize the emotional impact of evaluation. Their primary concern is for providing fair,

valid selection processes, and in understanding what variables influence these processes.

Stott (1973) has attempted to reconcile differences between the evaluative and non-evaluative positions. He suggests that the tension between the two positions also exists within man. It is the tension "between survival and survival for what, between power and principal, between job and justice" (p. 13).

If pressure is applied to one or both of the two positions, then the gap between them widens. At one end of the continuum the emphasis on client needs plus the questionable validity of assessment may lead to a refusal to evaluate one applicant against another. Extend this position further, and it can be argued that candidates should evaluate themselves. At the other end of the continuum stress competitive selection procedures and the Spartan ethic or social Darwinism (survival of the fittest) can be carried to an absurdity.

At the University of Alberta there exists a prototype of the gate-keeping function that has been severely criticized by the anti-assessment position. Essentially the process, one which has never been empirically examined, involves the screening by Student Counseling Services of candidates who have been required to withdraw (failed) and are seeking readmission. These candidates are tested, then interviewed by a counsellor. On the basis of their academic credentials, the interview impression, test results and any other material available, the counsellor makes a prognostic statement to the administration concerning the client's chances for success. The administration then makes a decision concerning the applicant's admissibility.

It is intuitively obvious that there exists within this situation the potential for tension and/or conflict between the three parties involved: applicants, counsellors and administrators. This potential, when viewed in the light of the above discussion, seems to lead to a polarization of approaches with respect to readmission: evaluation versus nonevaluation. This study was designed to look at the effects of the two positions. Essentially, the question asked is what effect does counsellor-selection (evaluation) as opposed to self- or client-selection (nonevaluation) have on a required counselling interview?

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this study is to compare evaluative and nonevaluative counselling sessions with respect to counsellor functioning (expression of empathy and confrontation) and client functioning (self-exploration and perception of the interview) using clients who were seeking readmission to university after a previous failure.

The Client-Centered Position

Roger's (1942) initial nondirective approach to counselling was markedly different from the more evaluative and directive therapeutic approaches of his day. He reacted negatively to most testing and diagnostic procedures because he felt that the use of these procedures implied that the counsellor had answers to the client's difficulties which in fact he did not have. Instead of relying on testing and diagnostic methods he proposed that the client, rather than the counsellor, should be responsible for his own personal growth, and that the counsellor should be responsible for the conditions that would allow the client to maximize his own resources (Rogers, 1957).

In client-centered counselling, evaluation is the business of the client. If tests are used at all, their purpose is to help clients evaluate themselves. Patterson (1971) speaks to this issue:

What then is the purpose of tests in client-centred counselling? The answer should be clear. Tests are used to assist the client in evaluating himself. It is the client who evaluates and not the counsellor. The ultimate purpose of tests--indeed the purpose of counselling--is not to help the

counsellor understand the client (though they may do this, and understanding of the client by the counsellor is necessary) but to help the client understand himself. This confusion about the ultimate goal of counselling, the failure to recognize that this goal is not simply knowledge about or understanding of the client by the counsellor, has led to a misunderstanding about the place of data and information about the client in counselling. The result has been an over-emphasis on the collection of data, including test data, by the counsellor. It is not what the counsellor knows about the client, but what the client knows about himself, which is important. The client must make his own decision; therefore, he must make the evaluation.

(p. 143)

Briefly, client-centered counselling theory, founded by Rogers and elaborated by his students and colleagues, is based on the assumption that within all men there is a drive towards self-fulfillment. Within a warm, permissive interpersonal atmosphere these tendencies towards fulfillment will be realized. However, in a negative interpersonal climate the process can be short-circuited and growth interrupted.

In counselling, the relationship between the counsellor and the client is a method of regenerating personal growth. In this regard, client movement is to a large degree accounted for by the level of counsellor functioning (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967). A central characteristic of a healthy, growth inducing climate is the absence of threat and evaluation (Rogers, 1951). Within a nonevaluative and nonthreat-

ening atmosphere, respect for the client, acceptance of him as a person, seeing his point of view (empathy) and being genuinely interested in him are conditions which, if adequately perceived by the client, should allow the client to examine and explore himself and his situation and ultimately lead to growth (Rogers, 1957).

An Empirical Analysis of Counselling Process and Outcome

The client-centered position and subsequent extensions of it (Carkhuff, 1973) have generated considerable research. The focus of these investigations has been on the counselling relationship and its relationship to outcome.

The impetus for much of the empirical work on counselling and psychotherapy came from criticisms concerning the effectiveness of treatments (Carkhuff, 1973). Eysenck (1965) and others (Levitt, 1963) reported that on the average psychotherapy was ineffective. In reviewing the studies cited by Eysenck (1965) it was noted that the treated groups in relation to the control groups showed significantly larger variances (Bergin, 1963). After examining the sources of variance in the treatment groups the conclusion was reached that psychotherapy could be for better or worse (Bergin, 1963; Truax & Carkhuff, 1964), and this finding led to an examination of counsellor and client variables that were associated with positive and negative outcomes.

Early research within the client-centered position (Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967) focused on three counsellor variables: empathy, positive regard (warmth) and genuineness, and one client variable: depth of self-exploration. These counsellor-offered conditions were the ones seen by Rogers (1957) as being necessary and sufficient

for therapeutic outcome. Scales were developed by Charles B. Truax and his associates to measure these constructs (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967). These instruments were refined by Carkhuff (1969), and new measures were added. With the exception of the scale to measure unconditional positive regard, the Carkhuff instruments seem to be very similar to the Truax scales. Raters were trained on these instruments, and after training they rated recorded portions of interviews. In order to clarify the facilitative conditions the following brief descriptions of the instruments which were used in the early studies are presented. With the exception of warmth, all of the descriptions are based on the revised scales (Carkhuff, 1969).

Empathy. On the Carkhuff (1969) empathy scale (see Appendix A) scores below Level 3 should coincide with counsellor statements that are inaccurate with respect to client feelings and/or detract in some way from the client's ongoing experience. Scores for Level 3 or above are assigned to statements that accurately describe the client's feelings and aid clients in exploring their situation.

Warmth. On the scale for measuring unconditional positive regard or nonpossessive warmth at low levels the counsellor expresses dislike or disapproval or expresses warmth in a selective way (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967). At high levels the counsellor warmly communicates his acceptance of the person without imposing conditions.

Genuineness. On the Carkhuff (1969) genuineness scale (The Facilitative Genuineness in Interpersonal Process: A Scale for Measurement) the counsellor functioning below Level 3 generally responds to the client in a manner that is unrelated to what the counsellor is feeling, and the counsellor functioning at this level does not use his

negative reactions constructively. Counsellor expressions for Level 3 or above seem to be reasonably congruent with the counsellor's feelings.

Depth of self-exploration. On this scale (see Appendix B) client statements which are remote, impersonal and/or mechanical are assigned a low score. On the other hand, statements exhibiting emotional proximity and featuring the voluntary introduction of personality relevant material receive higher scores.

The effects of levels of empathy, warmth and genuineness on client depth of self-exploration has been experimentally manipulated. Truax and Carkhuff (1965) had therapists lower their levels of functioning during the middle third of an interview. They found that this manipulation had a direct effect upon client depth of self-exploration. That is, when therapists lowered their levels of functioning there was a consequent drop in client depth of self-exploration, and at a pre-arranged time when therapist-offered-conditions rose, there was a consequent rise in the client's level of self-exploration.

In another investigation employing a similar design Alexik and Carkhuff (1967) examined the effects of manipulating client depth of self-exploration upon counsellor level of functioning. They selected a high and low functioning counsellor from ratings of their performance in a previous study on the empathy, unconditional positive regard, genuineness, and concreteness scales. When a client (confederate) lowered her level of self-exploration, the highly rated counsellor increased his overall level of functioning, while the overall performance of the counsellor with the low ratings declined. After the client raised her level of self-exploration there was a slight rise in the level of func-

tioning for both counsellors.

In another study using the same format Piaget, Berenson and Carkhuff (1967) employed one high and one moderately rated counsellor interviewing high- and low-rated counselees. Both client and counsellor level of functioning was assessed using the Carkhuff scales. During the middle portion of the interview, when the counsellors lowered their level of functioning, the depth of self-exploration of low-rated clients declined, while the depth of self-exploration of high-rated clients showed a nonsignificant fluctuation in the same direction. However, with respect to the overall level of functioning at the end of the interview all clients of the high functioning counsellor improved their level of self-exploration, while for the low functioning counsellor the depth of self-exploration for both high- and low-rated clients declined. Moreover, it was found that the counsellor level of functioning was not affected by the client level of functioning.

Anderson (1968) investigated the effects of confrontation using high and low functioning counsellors. She found that confrontation by a high functioning counsellor was more frequently associated with increased client depth of self-exploration than was confrontation by a low functioning counsellor.

These findings and those of other studies have led to several important conclusions about the counselling relationship (Carkhuff, 1973) and provide support for the Rogerian position (Rogers, 1957). Essentially, these early studies suggested that the counsellor level of functioning was directly related to client level of functioning, and that it was the former which seemed to cause or at least be a primary

factor in determining the client's involvement in the counselling process. Moreover, with respect to the client's level of functioning over time the implications were clear. That is, if a client differentially explores his feelings with high and low functioning counsellors, then it seems likely that he will tend to move in the relative direction of the rated conditions offered by the respective helper. In general, the clients of high functioning counsellors will improve and those of low functioning counsellors will decline (Carkhuff, 1973).

While the experimental manipulations of counsellor and client functioning have provided interesting insights into the nature of the counselling relationship, the data with respect to the counselling outcome has been less than clear. After a comprehensive review of the literature Truax and Carkhuff (1967) conclude that empathy, warmth and genuineness are associated with positive therapeutic change. That is, high levels of these conditions are associated with changing "people for the better" (p. 141). An examination of the findings from the Wisconsin study on schizophrenia revealed both positive and negative relationships between the facilitative conditions and various outcome criterion (Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967). Similar inconsistencies appear to be the rule rather than the exception. For example, Truax and Carkhuff (1967) report a correlation of .70 between self-exploration (tape-judged) and eventual case outcome. Kurtz and Grummon (1972) reported that tape-judged self-exploration was related to tape-judged empathy, but it was not related to either client perceived empathy, as measured by the Barret-Lennard (1962) scale, or to outcome.

The inconsistencies in the counselling outcome literature may, in part, be attributable to the Truax and Carkhuff scales. However, problems in this domain are often related to a lack of correlation between various process and outcome measures (Bergin, 1967).

Scaling Problems with Tape-judged Instruments

Independence of rating instruments. The independence of the Carkhuff scales has been the focus of several investigations. Carkhuff (1969) has developed seven scales that purport to measure separate aspects of the therapist's behavior. Muehlberg, Pierce, and Drasgow (1969) reported that a "good guy" factor accounted for 89% of the variance among empathy, unconditional positive regard, genuineness, concreteness and counsellor self-disclosure scales. In another study using graduate student responses Hefele, Collingwood, and Drasgow (1970) found that one factor accounted for 79% of the variance. Chinsky and Rapport (1970) and Bozarth and Krauft (1972) discovered that "good therapist" and "likability" ratings correlated .45 and .27, respectively, with scores on the Carkhuff (1969) empathy scale. When the "likability" component was partialled out of the "good therapist" ratings, good therapist still correlated significantly with empathy, but the converse was not true.

As Gormally and Hill (1974) have noted these findings raise serious questions as to the specificity of the measuring instruments; i.e., either the instruments are not separate or counsellors high on one dimension are high on all dimensions. Moreover, there are doubts about whether or not the raters are responding to counsellor characteristics beyond the conditions of the Carkhuff scales. In sum, while a global

quality has not been proved, there is reason to question the independence of these scales.

Selection of raters. The rating problem has received considerable attention. The question has been raised as to who is the best judge of counselling: independent raters, counsellees, or counsellors. Kiesler (1966) found that naive judges and clients tended to agree on their perception of counselling for both the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory and client depth of self-exploration. On the other hand, counsellor ratings tended to be in opposition to their views. Burstein and Karkhuff (1968) have noted that clients tended to distort their perception of the facilitative conditions. The distortion issue was examined by Kaul, Kaul, and Bednar (1973). They reported that client's ratings of their performance on the depth of self-exploration scale were significantly higher than those of trained raters or counsellors. The authors seemed to feel that the source of this difference was in the perceptual sets ("phenomenological base rate") of the three groups. They suggest that the clients gave a true picture of their self-exploration, but that the perceptual sets of the raters and counsellors more closely approximated the ideal. In focusing on the same issue, Caracena and Vicory (1969) found no relationship between the ratings of trained judges and nonclient interviewees from the same population. They conclude that clients do not distort--they simply lack discrimination training.

Rating and experience. It has been suggested that different rater characteristics may affect the scaling process. Kagen (1972) is of the opinion that the extent to which raters assign lower marks to counsellors for not detecting subtle messages may be a function of ex-

perience, because experience may be the crucial variable in developing sensitivity to the subtle aspects of interpersonal communication.

Therefore, the experienced counsellor, in relation to the counselling graduate student or naive rater, may assign a lower mark to a counsellor response that does not fully grasp the significance of a client's statement and/or position but still leads the client to greater self-exploration.

In order to circumvent this problem, Carkhuff (1969) has suggested that only high functioning communicators should serve as raters.

Gormally and Hill (1974) observe that choosing such a rater requires a high functioning rater and that circularity results.

There are obviously problems with respect to the validity, specificity of the Truax and Carkhuff scales. However, the problems are not confined to these particular instruments but seem to be endemic to the areas of personality measurement and psychotherapy research. In regards to the latter, it was noted earlier, that different outcome measures are often used in different studies; however, these instruments rarely correlate with each other (Cartwright, Kirtner & Fiske, 1963). In addition, the various process instruments for measuring constructs like empathy have been found to be unrelated or only slightly correlated. Kurtz and Grummon (1972) found that only two of six measures of empathy were correlated (client-perceived and the Carkhuff tape-judged empathy scale).

In summing up the extremely complex and confusing literature with respect to counselling-therapy process and outcome the comments of Donald W. Fiske (1975) would appear to be appropriate.

Thus the researcher studying personality, and particularly

psychotherapy, has a choice, First, he can obtain highly objective data on concrete variables, with very high agreement among observers, at the cost of ignoring distinctive sources of data. It is not clear, furthermore, whether research on concrete variables will contribute to our understanding of process and outcome in psychotherapy. second, he can accept the apparently inevitable finding that different sources of personality data will show only limited agreement on the complex, judgmental variables which refer to the concepts involved in most thinking about psychotherapy. Given the contents of current concepts of personality and psychotherapy, most researchers will choose this alternative, at the cost of little agreement among sources and only fair agreement among separate measures obtained from the same general source. (p. 22)

In this experiment the latter route was followed, and both client and counsellor behavior were measured using the Carkhuff (1969) scales of empathy (see Appendix A), self-exploration (see Appendix B) and confrontation (see Appendix C). In addition, client ratings on the Counselling Evaluation Inventory were elicited (see Appendix D).

Institutional Role of the Counsellor

In practice, psychologist-counsellors often function as mediators between the individual and the institution. Sometimes, they evaluate or determine the criterion for evaluation. In an administrative capacity psychologists are involved with: admission and/or admission standards, promotion and/or the criteria for promotions, what informa-

tion will be kept in the student's or employee's file and who will have access to that information, and the testing policy of the school or organization (Shertzer & Stone, 1968).

Within the counselling profession there has been a growing awareness that the effectiveness of the counsellor may be limited by his institutional role. A counsellor who agrees with the Patterson (1971) position with respect to evaluation would feel uncomfortable in an administrative-counselling role that would not allow him to devote his full attention to the needs of the client. Other writers have expressed concerns about what they feel are necessarily incompatible functions; i.e., counselling and administration. The reservation has been expressed that once the counselling service identifies itself with authority it will become a "tool of the administration and a nemesis to the student" (Erickson & Smith, 1957, p. 5). Other writers have been more tempered in their approach to the problem. Rempel and Sartoris (1970) concluded that adding the administrative role will "ultimately make the task of the counsellor a more difficult one" (p. 20). Separation of the counselling and administrative functions in order to eliminate role conflict has been proposed as one solution to the problem (Rempel, Sartoris, & VanderWell, 1968).

In brief, the position taken by most writers who feel that the counsellor's role and the administrative function should be separated appears to focus around three central concerns. The primary one seems to be that even with the most flexible, client-centered administration there will inevitably be a conflict between the counsellee and the administration. If the counsellor is required to act in an administrative capacity, then his loyalty may be divided. Consequently, ser-

service to the student may be less than optimal. The second area seems to be tantamount to guilt by association. For example, Arbuckle (1966) has expressed the concern: "The counsellor who is surrounded by tests is indicating his approval of such instruments of appraisal and the fact that he approves of them makes him part of the total appraisal" (p. 300). The image of the student-oriented counsellor may thus be damaged. Thirdly, when the counsellor acts in an administrative or disciplinary role, he begins to resemble other authority figures from the student's past, and these old associations could intrude upon the counselling encounter and impede or block any therapeutic involvement with the client (Rempel, Sartoris, & VanderWell, 1968). Direct and even indirect involvement with the maintenance of institutional roles could negatively effect both the client and counsellor and impede the establishment of rapport.

There have been two studies which have focused on the counsellor's role vis-a-vis the institution. Brown and Calia (1968) looked at the effects of required versus self-initiated interviews at a university counselling centre. They found no difference in the client's rating of the self-initiated and required treatments. However, two of the four counsellors saw themselves as offering higher levels of Unconditional Regard under the self-initiated condition as opposed to the required treatment, while the reverse was true for another counsellor. Brown and Calia (1968) also found that counsellees, when required to see a counsellor, spent less time in the counselling interview than those who came voluntarily. The authors conclude that: "counsellor's bias rather than the client's behavior is most likely to impede the effectiveness of the initial interview" (p. 405).

Mann (1971) studied two variables, referral source and test seeking. He found that faculty-referred cases as opposed to self-referred clients tended to have more difficulty in reaching a contract with the counsellor ($p = .08$). He also found that the client's request for testing did not affect the establishment of the counsellor-client contract. However, he discovered that 86% of the self-referred test seekers but only 57% of the faculty-referred were able to negotiate a successful contract. He interpreted this finding "as suggesting that the counsellor is more likely to accept the client's request for testing at face value when it is seen as coming from the client himself rather than a faculty member" (p. 224).

The above research suggests that institutional intrusions may affect the interview behavior of the counsellor more than the client. This conclusion is tentative and based upon the speculations of Mann (1971), and Brown and Calia (1968). Unfortunately these works appear to be the only two studies in the literature which are even remotely related to this project.

Confrontation and the Institutional Role of the Counsellor

The confrontation scale (see Appendix C) has not been the subject of as many investigations as the empathy and depth of self-exploration scales; however, the variable has appeared in a number of studies (e.g., Kaul, Kaul, & Bednar, 1973; Anderson, 1968). In brief, a low score on the scale, below Level 3, indicates that the counsellor is ignoring, avoiding, or does not perceive discrepancies in the client's behavior. Scores of Level 3 or above are assigned to counsellor statements that focus on discrepancies in the client's behavior.

A confrontative style would seem to be particularly relevant to the evaluative encounter. As noted above, the potential for conflict between counsellor and client is incorporated within the evaluative setting. It is assumed that the client by virtue of his intent to re-enroll or at least consider the possibility of reenrollment is being pushed by some motivational force towards a goal. This goal or the client's motivation may not be congruent with the counsellor's perception of the client, the test results, the client's previous academic record, his choice of programs, etc... In an evaluative interview where the counsellor must report on the client's readiness for readmission, there would seem to be external pressure on the counsellor to resolve these discrepancies. One obvious method of bridging the gap between the two positions is to confront the client.

On the other hand, in a nonevaluative interview, where no decision or report is required, a counsellor might overlook inconsistencies in a client's behavior that he would not generally pass over in a written communique to a colleague or school administrator. It also seems intuitively obvious that in a nonevaluative setting the counsellor would have more flexibility in choosing his approach.

However, other factors, such as divided attention and/or loyalty suggest that the counsellor's capacity to detect or respond to discrepancies in the client's behavior may be reduced in the evaluative rather than the nonevaluative interview.

In sum, while confrontation as measured by the Carkhuff scale seems to be relevant to both the evaluative and nonevaluative encounters, the effects of these treatments on the levels of counsellor functioning does not appear to be straightforward.

Counsellor-related conclusions. Carkhuff and Berenson (1967) argue that it is the responsibility of the counsellor to offer his clients "100%" of his own experience. It is the counsellor's attitude and sensitivity which enable the client to reach more personality rewarding levels of intra-personal and inter-personal functioning. If required to fulfill an evaluative role, the counsellor's capacity to effectively serve the client may be limited. This expectation is very much in line with Kell & Mueller's (1968) hypothesis that when diagnosis is maximized the quality of the relationship (counsellor-client) is minimal. Rogers (1975) has stated that true empathy is always free of an evaluative or diagnostic quality. Moreover, it is a primary concern that, in spite of the orientations and good intentions of the counsellor that when institutional-evaluative goals must be met, the counsellor's attention will be divided, and focus on the client will be restricted. If counsellor functioning is restricted or in some way inhibited by evaluation, then the levels of empathy and possibly confrontation offered to the client will be lowered, especially in relation to the levels of these conditions offered in a nonevaluative atmosphere.

Client-related conclusions. From the client's point of view it is felt that the absence of evaluation will facilitate self-examination and exploration (Patterson, 1971). If, on the other hand, clients perceive the counselling situation as threatening, then they may become defensive and/or aggressive. For example, if clients are required to get past an institutional gatekeeper, then chances are that they will not examine their needs for fear of jeopardizing their position. Other writers have reached similar conclusions. For example, Chronbach (1960) states:

Complete frankness cannot be anticipated in any situation where the subject will be rewarded or punished for his response. Some degree of reward or punishment is implicit in any institutional use of tests such as clinical diagnosis or employee selection. Honest self-examination can be hoped for only when the testor is helping the subject solve his own problems. (p. 454)

If clients hold back their feelings in an evaluative encounter, then there are reasons to suspect that their perceptions of the encounter will be negative or in some way diminished. However, the removal of the feared result (denial of readmission) should allow clients to express a fuller range of feelings. Thus, clients should experience greater satisfaction with the nonevaluative encounter.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Subjects

Subjects were 99 former University of Alberta students who had failed one year (to the extent of being required to withdraw) and were seeking readmission for the 1973-74 and 1974-75 school years to the Faculties of Arts, Science, and Education after an absence of at least one year. The population is described in Table 1. All applicants from other faculties, those with two or more academic failures, transfers from other universities (who by University of Alberta standards had failed their last academic year) and former students seeking immediate readmission after being required to withdraw were excluded from the project. These limits were set by the Director, Student Counseling Services, University of Alberta.

A standard test battery was administered to all Ss. This test battery consisted of the following instruments: Ohio State Psychological Examination, California Personality Inventory, and the Strong Vocational Interest Inventory. The numerical subtest (Q) of the American Council on Education Psychological Examination was administered to Ss applying for admission to the Faculty of Science. These tests were representative of the ones routinely assigned to applicants seeking readmission after failure; however, in order to insure uniformity the E rather than the counsellor assigned the tests.

Treatment Groups

Subjects were assigned to one of two treatment groups. In the evaluative treatment, which has been the standard procedure for as

TABLE 1
DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS
OF THE SAMPLE BY TREATMENTS

Source	Treatment		Total
	Evaluation	Nonevaluation	
Sample Size (N)	54	45	99
Sex			
Male	39	33	72
Female	15	12	27
Mean Age	21.5	21.9	--
Grade 12 Average	66%	66%	---
Year of Failure			
First	29	25	54
Second	15	13	28
Third	10	7	17
Percentage of group membership with only a one-year absence after failure	72%	65%	---
Mean number of years away from university after failure	1.65	1.63	---

long as anyone on staff can remember, Ss were required to complete a battery of tests and to appear for a counselling interview. The primary purpose of this procedure was to enable the counsellor to make a recommendation concerning the probability of the client's future success with his academic program. In effect, this amounted to an attempt on the part of the counsellor to assess the reasons for failure, to evaluate the current test results, and to make a prognostic statement to the administration concerning the client's chances for academic success.

A second group of Ss were tested and interviewed; however, the conditions of the interview were altered. In this group the responsibility for choosing whether or not the student would return to university was left to the discretion of each S. This is essentially a non-evaluative or self-selection treatment, and the onus for choosing whether or not to return to university was shifted from the counsellor to the client.

Special permission was obtained from the faculties to admit all Ss, even those who received a negative recommendation from a counsellor.

Counsellors

A junior staff member and three counselling internes served as the counsellors for this project. All were registered as students in the Department of Educational Psychology, University of Alberta. Three of the four counsellors had obtained undergraduate degrees in psychology. The other counsellor had an R.N. and an M.A. (romance languages). All had completed at least two years of full-time course work towards an M.Ed. or Ph.D. degree in counselling.

There were two teams of counsellors, each with male and female member. One team, Counsellors 1 and 2, took part in the study during the spring and summer of 1973, while the other team, Counsellors 3 and 4, was involved in the project from January, 1974 until August, 1974.

Procedure

The various steps involved in processing Ss are outlined in Figure 1.

- | | | |
|--|--|--|
| 1. Contact with
Counselling Service | 2. Assignment to treat-
ments. Letter sent
to <u>Ss</u> in nonevalua-
tive treatment. | 3. Testing |
| 4. Interview | 5. Counselling Evalua-
tion Inventory com-
pleted | 6. Counsellor's
recommendation.
Readmission
notice sent to
Faculty for <u>Ss</u>
in nonevalua-
tive treatment. |

Figure 1: Flow chart of experimental procedures

The assignment of Ss to treatment groups (see Steps 1 and 2; Figure 1) was more or less on an alternate basis and occurred at the time the E became aware of the S's intent to return to university. There were, however, exceptions. These exceptions involved a control group whose members were not required to report for counselling. This group was not part of this study; however, the alternate assignment to treatments was modified and the modifications involved the control group. The modifications were twofold. Firstly, applicants from "out of town" were more frequently assigned to the control group in order to save them the trip to Edmonton. Secondly, because of counsellor vacation schedules most of the Ss were assigned to the control group in mid-

late July and August. This bias was most pronounced in August, 1974 when 25 of 43 Ss were assigned to the control group.

A letter (see Appendix E) was sent to all Ss placed in the non-evaluative condition (Step 2; Figure 1). This letter explained the special conditions for readmission.

A standard test battery was administered to all Ss. (Step 3; Figure 1).

All Ss received an appointment at the Student Counselling Services, University of Alberta (Step 4; Figure 1). While one hour was set aside, the interviews only averaged 36 minutes. The mean times for the interviews are presented in Table 2, and the summary of the analysis of variance for interview times is presented in Table 3. The total mean difference between the counsellors was significant ($p = .04$). A Scheffe Analysis of the differences between various combinations of means showed a significant difference between counsellors 2 and 3 ($p = .05$), but none of the other differences were significant.

TABLE 2

MEAN INTERVIEW LENGTH FOR
COUNSELLORS BY TREATMENTS

Treatment	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 1	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 2	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 3	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 4
Evaluation	7	33	14	34	10	47	18	34
Nonevaluation	7	42	11	26	11	36	11	36
Total	14	37.5	25	30	21	41.5	29	35

TABLE 3
SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS
OF VARIANCE FOR
INTERVIEW LENGTH

Source	<u>DF</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>P</u>
A (Treatments)	1	77	.4	.51
B (Counsellors)	3	507	2.81	.04
A X B	3	367	2.03	.11
Error	81	180		

Each of the interviews was rated for content (see Appendix F) and description of the process is presented in conjunction with a description of the other rating scales. It can be seen in Table 4 that personal and vocational themes accounted for approximately 63% of the interview content.

TABLE 4
SUMMARY OF THE COUNSELLING SEQUENCES
RATED FOR CONTENT

Scale	Percentage of 267 Sequences Rated
Vocational	31.8
Personal	31.1
Educational	16.1
Testing	7.7
Administrative	7.6
Chit-Chat	3.6
Not Applicable	2.2

At the beginning of each interview permission to record the session was requested. Moreover, counsellors were asked to check with each S in the nonevaluation group to make sure that they understood the conditions for readmission. There were no further experimental interruptions until the end of the session. At this time all Ss seen were asked to complete the Counselling Evaluation Inventory (Step 5; Figure 1).

After the interview the counsellor was required to write a letter to the administration for Ss in the evaluative condition (Step 6; Figure 1). While the style and content of these letters varied from counsellor to counsellor all of the letters included a summary of the test results and a prognostic statement with respect to academic performance.

Analysis

All interviews were tape recorded and two-minute sequences were extracted from the beginning, middle and end of each interview. Each segment was judged by trained raters on scales of empathy, self-exploration, and confrontation. The order in which the beginning, middle, and end sequences were placed on the master tapes was scrambled. To further reduce any possible carry-over effect four tape recorders were employed. On each recorder was a master tape with the sequences from several interviews. The rater was required to judge a sequence, then change tape recorders for the next rating. This method insured that only one out of every four segments was from the same interview.

The six judges were all counselling graduate students with at least one year of graduate training. There were five females and one

male, and they were divided into three teams with two members per team. Each team rated one scale.

The empathy and confrontation scales were selected because they emphasize accuracy in communicating information to the client. In this counselling situation accurate communication was considered important. While other scales such as genuineness, respect, counsellor self-disclosure and immediacy might have proved useful, these instruments would seem to be more relevant to other situations, such as psychotherapy.

The self-exploration scale was used, because it appears to be the most generally accepted process and/or outcome measure of all the tape-judged scales (Kaul, Kaul & Bednar, 1973). Moreover, in the literature on evaluation a great deal of emphasis is placed on the feelings of the client (e.g., Dailey, 1971). The Counselling Evaluation Inventory was selected, because it was a brief measure that included questions about tests.

Empathy. The Empathic Understanding in Interpersonal Process: A Scale for Measurement (Carkhuff, 1969; see Appendix A) was used in the experiment.

The instrument was modified from a basic five-point into a 17-point scale. Raters were asked to make judgments at quartile intervals rather than the usual procedure of having them rate on the integers one through five or half marks on a 9-point scale. Agreement between judges was set so that any two ratings on the same sequence had to be within .50 of each other. For example, ratings of 2.75 and 3.25 were judged as being in agreement. Disagreement between judges occurred when two ratings differed by more than .50, such as 2.75 and 3.50. In all cases where there was a disparity between estimates, the judgments

were averaged, and this average was used in the final tabulations.

The training on the empathy scale focused on the ratings and discussions of client-counsellor statements. There were two training sessions which totalled approximately four hours. The method employed was similar to the procedure described by Carkhuff (1969), and discrepancies between rater estimates and those of expert judges were discussed. Training materials were extracted from Bozarth and Krauft (Note 1) and from tape recordings of Robert Carkhuff (Parker, Note 2).

At the end of training there was a validity-reliability check using pre-rated, three-minute segments from counselling interviews. The segments were, in part, the same ones used by the scale developer to train his raters and all of the sequences were rated by Robert Carkhuff and his associates (Calder, Note 3). The interrater agreement on 10 trials were perfect. Moreover, all the ratings of both judges were within .5 of the expert ratings.

After training, the overall reliability of the raters declined. On two, 40-item segments the interrater percentage of agreement was 55 and 58. The interrater reliability in the most recent literature appears to fluctuate between .60 and .80 but the range of reliability coefficients reported was quite large, .25 to .95 (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967).

Self-Exploration. The Helpee Self-Exploration Scale in Interpersonal Process: A Scale for Measurement was used in the experiment (Carkhuff, 1969; see Appendix B).

This instrument was modified like the empathy scale. That is, the basic five-point scale was transformed into a 17-point scale, and agreement and disagreement were judged according to the same criterion.

Moreover, the same written and recorded material was used in training and checking reliability and validity of the raters.

Training took only three and a half hours. At the end of the training, interrater agreement was reached on 11 of 12 three-minute segments extracted from counselling interviews (Calder, Note 3). On 23 of 24 of these ratings there was agreement between trainees' judgments and those of the E. The E's judgments were used as the criterion for validity, because no other external sources were available.

The agreement between raters on the recorded data was considerably higher for this instrument than for the empathy scale. On two, 40-item segments the interrater agreement was 75 percent and 80 percent. These ratings compare quite favorably with those reported in the literature. Truax and Carkhuff (1967) reported reliabilities from 12 studies ranging between .59 and .88.

Confrontation. The Confrontation in Interpersonal Process: A Scale for Measurement (Carkhuff, 1969; see Appendix C) was employed in this experiment.

There was no modification of this scale. However, the aforementioned material was used for training and checking reliability and validity. Raters were trained for four and a half hours (two sessions). There was interrater agreement on 14 of 16 three-minute segments of counselling interviews. Additional tape recordings of counselling segments were used to compare the E and the trainees ratings. This check was the only source of validation available. There was agreement between them on 26 of 32 items or 80 percent of the segments rated. On the data for this study the interrater agreement on two, 40-item sequences was 83 percent and 95 percent. In the literature the inter-

rater reliabilities seem to be fairly high, .80 to .90 (e.g., Anderson, 1969; Kaul, Kaul & Bedner, 1973).

Confrontation was not rated as a continuous variable. That is, if in the rater's judgment the scale was not appropriate to the interview-segment, then no score was assigned. There were several cells with missing data, and as a result, a repeated measures analysis was not considered appropriate (Winer, 1962).

In order to make the scores more amenable to analysis a process similar to one used by Kurtz and Grummon (1972) was completed. First the means from the beginning, middle and end segments (see Appendix E) were compared to insure that they were not significantly different from each other. In order, the mean confrontation scores for the beginning, middle and end segments were: 2.4, 2.3 and 2.3. The differences between these scores were not significant. Thus, the score for each S were combined by averaging them across the three segments. This combined score was used for analysis.

Counselling Evaluation Inventory (CEI). This instrument (see Appendix D) was selected as a dependent variable because counsellors' perceptions of counselling seem to be positively related to outcome (Bergin, 1967; Kurtz & Grummon, 1972). Moreover, for the evaluative and nonevaluative interviews this instrument has reasonably good face validity, because it includes questions about testing. Most of the other rating scales that focused on counselling climate were designed to measure psychotherapy and did not seem to be as relevant to the re-admission interview as the Counselling Evaluation Inventory.

The Counselling Evaluation Inventory was developed to assess the reactions of students to counselling (Linden, Stone & Shertzer, 1965).

The average reliability coefficient reported for the CEI is .72 (Hasse & Miller, 1968). In addition to face validity, the CEI has discriminative validity with respect to counsellor's practicum grades at or beyond the .05 level of significance (Linden, Stone & Shertzer, 1965). A factor analysis of the instrument yielded three principle factors: Counsellor Comfort, Counselling Climate and Client Satisfaction (Linden, Stone & Shertzer, 1965).

The Counselling Evaluation Inventory has been found to be related to counsellor effectiveness as measured by positive changes in the grade point average of their clients (Rickabaugh, Heaps & Finely, 1972) and to the level of counsellor experience (Ivey, Miller & Gabbert, 1968; Reed, 1969).

The questions on this scale were answered in sequences: Always, Often, Sometimes, Rarely and Never. These items were rated on a scale one through five from least desirable to most desirable.

Content. Each interview was rated for content (see Appendix F). The content ratings were designed to provide a broad framework within which the relevance of the tape-judged scales to this study could be evaluated. The judges were the same ones who rated the confrontation scale. Raters were instructed to reach agreement on the most frequently occurring content theme for each segment.

Design

Two basic designs were employed: a 2 X 4 factorial and a repeated measures design. The Counselling Evaluation Inventory ratings, confrontation scores and interview length were assessed using a 2 X 4 factorial design with four counsellors operating under evaluative and

nonevaluative conditions. A 2 X 4 X 3 repeated measures design was used to assess the effects of empathy and self-exploration. Three segments, one each from the beginning, middle and end of the evaluative and nonevaluate counselling sessions of the four counsellors were compared. The level of statistical significance was set at .05.

Hypotheses

It was predicted that the means for the nonevaluative treatment would be higher than the means for the evaluative treatment on the following scales. Four hypotheses were tested and a probability level of .05 was set for acceptance of these hypotheses.

Hypothesis I: Empathy scores as measured by The Empathic Understanding in Interpersonal Process: A Scale for Measurement (Carkhuff, 1969; see Appendix A) would be higher under the nonevaluative than under the evaluative treatment.

Hypothesis II: Client Satisfaction scores, as measured by the Counselling Evaluation Inventory (see Appendix D) would be higher under the nonevaluative than under the evaluative treatment.

Hypothesis III: Counselling Climate scores as measured by the Counselling Evaluation Inventory (see Appendix D) would be higher under the nonevaluative than under the evaluative treatment.

Hypothesis IV: Self-exploration scores as measured by the Helpee Self-exploration in Interpersonal Process: A Scale for Measurement (Carkhuff, 1969; see Appendix B) would be higher under the nonevaluative than under the evaluative treatment.

Hypothesis V: There would be no difference in the confrontation

scores as measured by The Confrontation in Interpersonal Process: A Scale for Measurement (Carkhuff, 1969; see Appendix C) between the evaluative and nonevaluative treatments.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

A summary of the Means (\bar{X}), Standard Deviations (SD), Sample Sizes (N), and F-ratios (F) for the dependent variables is presented in Table 5.

Counsellor Functioning

Empathy. The means for the empathy ratings are reported in Table 6, and the summary of the repeated measures analysis is reported in Table 7. A one-tailed test of the difference between the evaluative ($\bar{X} = 2.63$) and nonevaluative ($\bar{X} = 2.65$) treatments showed no significance.

In sum, Hypothesis I was not accepted.

Confrontation. The means for the confrontation scale are reported in Table 8, and a summary of the analysis of variance is presented in Table 9. A two-tailed test between the evaluative ($\bar{X} = 2.23$) and nonevaluative ($\bar{X} = 2.47$) treatments found no significant difference.

In sum, Hypothesis V was not rejected.

Client Functioning

Client Satisfaction Factor (CEI). The means for the Client Satisfaction factor of the Counselling Evaluation Inventory are presented in Table 10, and the summary of the analysis of variance is presented in Table 11. For all counsellors the means for the nonevaluative treatment as opposed to the evaluative treatment were higher. A one-tailed test of the difference between the Evaluation Treatment Mean ($\bar{X} = 27.04$) and the Nonevaluation Treatment Mean ($\bar{X} = 29.26$) was sig-

TABLE 5

SUMMARY OF THE MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, SAMPLE SIZES,
AND F-RATIOS FOR THE DEPENDENT VARIABLES BY TREATMENTS

<u>Dependent Variables</u>		<u>Treatments</u>	
		<u>Evaluative</u>	<u>Nonevaluative</u>
Empathy	<u>\bar{X}</u>	2.63	2.65
	<u>N</u>	50	38
	<u>SD</u>		
	<u>F</u>	.36	
Confrontation	<u>\bar{X}</u>	2.23	2.47
	<u>N</u>	47	36
	<u>SD</u>		
	<u>F</u>	2.4	
Client Satisfaction	<u>\bar{X}</u>	27.0	29.3
	<u>N</u>	45	41
	<u>SD</u>		
	<u>F</u>	3.4*	
Counselling Climate	<u>\bar{X}</u>	41.7	41.5
	<u>N</u>	45	41
	<u>SD</u>		
	<u>F</u>	.76	
Self- exploration	<u>\bar{X}</u>	1.82	1.69
	<u>N</u>	50	39
	<u>SD</u>		
	<u>F</u>	.55	

*p < .05

TABLE 6
MEAN EMPATHY SCORES
FOR COUNSELLORS BY TREATMENTS

Treatment	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 1	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 2	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 3	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 4
Evaluation	7	2.69	14	2.56	11	2.57	18	2.70
Nonevaluation	7	2.97	10	2.42	10	2.78	11	2.56
Total	14	2.83	24	2.49	21	2.67	29	2.63

TABLE 7
SUMMARY OF REPEATED MEASURES
ANALYSIS OF EMPATHY SCORES

Source	<u>DF</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>P</u>
A (Treatment)	1	1147	.36	.27
B (Counsellors)	3	12149	3.81	.01
A X B	3	8102	2.54	.06
<u>Ss</u> - within	80	3183		
C (T_1 , T_2 , T_3)	2	2945	2.13	.12
A X C	2	860	.62	.53
B X C	6	1834	1.3	.24
A X B X C	6	2487	1.8	.10
<u>Ss</u> - within	160	1378		

TABLE 8
MEAN CONFRONTATION SCORES
FOR COUNSELLOR BY TREATMENTS

Treatment	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 1	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 2	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 3	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 4
Evaluation	6	1.97	13	2.48	11	1.91	17	2.54
Nonevaluation	7	2.79	10	2.30	10	1.73	9	3.04
Total	13	2.38	23	2.39	21	1.82	26	2.79

TABLE 9
SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
OF CONFRONTATION SCORES

Source	<u>DF</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>P</u>
A (Treatments)	1	108	2.4	.12
B (Counsellors)	3	348	7.86	.01
A X B	3	112	2.53	.06
Error	75	44		

TABLE 10
MEAN CLIENT SATISFACTION
SCORES FOR COUNSELLORS BY TREATMENTS

Treatment	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 1	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 2	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 3	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 4
Evaluation	7	27.4	12	25.0	11	28.2	15	27.5
Nonevaluation	6	31.2	12	28.7	11	28.4	12	28.8
Total	13	29.3	24	26.9	22	28.3	27	28.2

TABLE 11

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
FOR THE CLIENT SATISFACTION FACTOR

Source	<u>DF</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>P</u>
A (Treatments)	1	83.8	3.4	.03
B (Counsellors)	3	19.9	.80	.49
A X B	3	20.1	.81	.49
Error	78	24.6		

TABLE 12

MEAN COUNSELLING CLIMATE
SCORES FOR COUNSELLORS BY TREATMENTS

Treatment	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 1	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 2	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 3	<u>n</u>	Coun- sellor 4
Evaluation	7	41.6	12	41.8	11	41.5	15	42.1
Nonevaluation	6	41.6	12	41.9	11	42.9	12	39.5
Total	13	41.6	24	41.8	22	42.1	27	40.7

TABLE 13

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
FOR THE COUNSELLING CLIMATE FACTOR

Source	<u>DF</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>P</u>
A (Treatments)	1	1.61	.09	.76
B (Counsellors)	3	11.01	.62	.60
A X B	3	20.58	1.16	.33
Error	78	17.67		

TABLE 14
MEAN DEPTH OF SELF-EXPLORATION
SCORES FOR COUNSELLORS BY TREATMENTS

Treatment	<u>n</u>	Coun- seller 1	<u>n</u>	Coun- seller 2	<u>n</u>	Coun- seller 3	<u>n</u>	Coun- seller 4
Evaluation	7	1.59	14	1.78	11	1.69	18	2.02
Nonevaluation	7	1.70	11	1.56	10	1.76	11	1.77
Total	14	1.64	25	1.68	21	1.72	29	1.92

TABLE 15
SUMMARY OF REPEATED MEASURES ANALYSIS OF
DEPTH OF SELF-EXPLORATION SCORES

Source	<u>DF</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>P</u>
A (Treatment)	1	3146	.55	.46
B (Counsellors)	3	7857	.37	.26
A X B	3	5324	.93	.43
<u>Ss</u> - within	81	5754		
C (T_1 , T_2 , T_3)	2	4987	1.84	.16
A X C	2	4442	1.64	.20
A X B	6	3041	1.12	.35
A X B X C	6	2513	.93	.48
<u>Ss</u> - within	162	2716		

nificant at the .05 level.

In sum, Hypothesis II was accepted.

Counselling Climate (CEI). The means for the Counselling Climate factor of the Counselling Evaluation Inventory are reported in Table 12, and the summary for the analysis of variance is presented in Table 13. A one-tailed test of the difference between the means for the evaluative ($\bar{X} = 41.7$) and nonevaluative ($\bar{X} = 41.5$) treatments was not significant.

In sum, Hypothesis III was not accepted.

Depth of Self-Exploration. The means for the client's depth of self-exploration scale are reported in Table 14 and the summary of the repeated measures analysis is presented in Table 15. The scores reported in Table 14 were lower than expected. A one-tailed test of the difference between the means for the evaluative ($\bar{X} = 1.82$) and nonevaluative ($\bar{X} = 1.69$) treatments was not significant.

In sum, Hypothesis IV was not accepted.

Additional Findings

Counsellor variables. On the empathy and confrontation scales (Tables 7 & 9) the Counsellor Main Effect was significant at the .01 level. Thus, there were differences in the average empathy and confrontation scores among the counsellors. On these scales the means for the counsellors fluctuated across treatments. That is, some of the counsellors offered higher levels of these conditions under the evaluative treatment, while other counsellors offered higher levels of these conditions under the nonevaluative treatment. The interaction effects for both scales reflect this trend as they approach significance ($p = .06$).

Client variables. The scores for each of the 21 questions on the Counselling Evaluation Inventory (CEI) were compared using 21, 2 X 4 analysis of variance designs. Only on Question 13 ("I felt comfortable in my interview with the counsellor.") was a significant difference between the evaluative and nonevaluative conditions detected ($p < .01$; see Appendix H).

Summary

In brief, evaluation and nonevaluation had very little effect on the tape-judged scales of empathy, confrontation, and self-exploration and on the clients' ratings on the Counselling Climate Factor of the Counselling Evaluation Inventory. The data, however, seemed to support the conclusion that clients felt more satisfied with the nonevaluative rather than the evaluative treatment. The fluctuation of counsellors across treatments on the empathy and confrontation scales suggests that there is no simple straightforward relationship between counsellor functioning and the evaluation-nonevaluation dichotomy.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

On the tape-judged scales there was no support for the client-centered or nonevaluation position. The predicted negative effects of evaluation on the relative levels of empathic understanding offered to the two treatment groups did not materialize. Moreover, evaluation relative to nonevaluation did not significantly effect the client's depth of self-exploration.

On the other hand, the clients' ratings seemed to indicate that evaluation in comparison to nonevaluation can reduce client satisfaction and/or feelings of comfort. However, with respect to ratings of counselling climate there was no difference between treatments.

Limitations

Design. There were several uncontrolled factors that could have affected the results of this study. This experiment was originally designed as a 2 X 2 analysis of variance. However, factors beyond the experimenter's control caused a fluctuation of sample sizes across treatments and counsellors, and a reduction in the overall N. These factors included the vacation schedules of counsellors during critical periods and a reduction in the number of faculties in the study from five to three. Many of the Ss and potential Ss were improperly identified by the office staff. This often caused a last-minute assignment to the project or the failure of a candidate to be included in the sample. Most of the potential Ss, who were identified after completing testing, were assigned to the evaluation treatment, because they had been informed by the office staff that they would be evaluated. The

project was extended for a year, because of a low N in 1973. The result of the extension was a 2 X 4 analysis of variance with Ss nested within Counsellor pairs 1-2 and 3-4. Subjects, thus, did not have the opportunity to be randomly assigned to all counsellors and uncontrolled sources of error resulted.

Experience of counsellors. The four counsellors were relatively inexperienced (a newly appointed staff member and counselling interns) in comparison to the other members of the counselling staff. The lack of training and experience in working with the tests could have produced a climate of uncertainty. If uncertainty was a by-product of inexperience, this may have lowered the levels of counsellor functioning and affected their predictions. It seems likely that it might have been safer to recommend all Ss rather than take a chance of closing the door on a client's academic future. This would have been congruent with the humanistic attitudes of all the counsellors.

In contrast to the levels of empathy reported in the literature it should be noted that in this study the counsellor with the lowest Total Mean (2.49) was functioning at a relatively high level. For example, Carkhuff and Berenson (1967) reported that the average mean for the empathy scale for 32 (experienced) counsellors was 1.86. Kurtz and Grummon (1972) reported an average score of 2.26 for 31 counsellors, clinical psychologists and interns with from 1 - 20 years experience. While uncontrolled rater characteristics make comparisons between studies difficult, the measured functioning of counsellors on the empathy scale suggests that counsellors in this study were at least average.

Data collection. Steps were not taken to ensure the confidenti-

ality and/or security of the answer sheets for the Counselling Evaluation Inventory. Thus, Ss may have justifiably assumed that the counsellors would have access to their ratings. It seems likely that this perception could have led to an elevated appraisal of counselling. In this regard, it should be noted that the ratings in both treatments were high, i.e., they averaged about four on a five-point scale. In the evaluative treatment, where the Ss were aware that the counsellor's recommendation was incomplete, the climate would have been particularly ripe for them to soften or not express any negative feelings.

Counsellor Functioning

The Total Treatment Means for the empathy and confrontation scales revealed a difference between the counsellors' levels of functioning. This finding was not surprising, since it has been consistently reported in the literature that counsellors differ with respect to levels of functioning (e.g., Truax & Carkhuff, 1967). That is, some counsellors operate at high levels, while others seem to function at low levels.

Rogers (1975) has stated that true empathy is always free of an evaluative component. Kell and Mueller (1966) have suggested that the quality of the relationship between counsellor and client is inversely related to the diagnostic stance of the counsellor. Moreover, it was the author's concern that the potential conflict between service to both institution and client would detract from the counsellor's effectiveness. There was no support for these ideas.

It is possible that the treatment conditions may not have appreciably influenced the overall levels of counsellor functioning. How-

ever, since there was only one negative recommendation in the evaluative treatment, it also seems likely that most or possibly all of the counsellors could have taken a nonevaluative approach to both treatment conditions. Thus, the hypothetical gap between the two treatments might have been minimized.

The evaluative and nonevaluative conditions appear to have had some effect on the functioning of the counsellors, because the levels of empathy and confrontation seemed to vary across treatments. For Counsellors 1 and 2, the performance patterns were consistent for both variables. Counsellor 1 functioned at a higher level in the nonevaluative than in the evaluative treatment. The reverse was true for Counsellor 2. There was inconsistency with respect to the patterns of empathy and confrontation for Counsellors 3 and 4. Counsellor 3 offered higher levels of empathy to Ss in the evaluative treatment than to Ss in the nonevaluative treatment. For confrontation the pattern was reversed (evaluation < nonevaluation). For Counsellor 4 the exact opposite pattern with respect to these variables was found.

The variation of counsellors across treatments on the confrontation and empathy variables were very much in line with the findings of Brown and Calia (1968). In their study two counsellors reported feeling "shame and guilt" during compulsory interviews but positive feelings towards client-initiated contacts (p. 405). On the other hand, another counsellor reported reacting more favourably toward the compulsory interviews. Brown and Calia (1968) suggested that counsellor bias rather than client behavior may have more of an impact on the initial interview.

In this regard, an informal survey of the counsellors in this

study revealed a preference for client-initiated interviews. With respect to the treatment conditions Counsellors 1, 3, and 4 were more positive about nonevaluation rather than evaluation. On the other hand, Counsellor 2 preferred evaluation. The performance of Counsellors 1 and 2 were consistent with their reported reactions to the treatment, but the performances of Counsellors 3 and 4 were inconsistent. With respect to the client's perception of the counsellor's performance on the Counsellor Comfort Factor of the Counselling Evaluation Inventory neither Treatment nor Counsellor X Treatment effects were significant (see Appendix G). Thus, the effects of evaluation and nonevaluation appear to be mediated by counsellors, and counsellor idiosyncracies or biases seem to be as important as the treatments.

It seems reasonably clear that counsellors offered substantial levels of empathy within the evaluative treatment. The question as to whether or not their behavior was caused by a nonevaluative approach to evaluation is both relevant and unanswerable. However, within the study imposed institutional evaluation did not present an insurmountable hurdle in the way of empathic understanding. In fact, for Counsellors 2 and 4 the average level of empathy was higher in the evaluative rather than the nonevaluative treatment. The client depth of self-exploration means showed the same pattern. In addition, the correlations between empathy and self-exploration reported in Table 19 (see Appendix I) were positive and the relationships between Empathy T_2 (the second sequence) and Self-exploration T_2 and Empathy T_3 (the third sequence) and Self-exploration T_3 were significant at the .05 level. Since confrontation has been positively associated with client depth of self-exploration, it should be noted that the correlations between

these two variables on the same sequences reported above (Table 19; see Appendix I) were either negligible or negative. Thus, there was evidence to suggest that counsellors can establish rapport and possibly facilitate client growth within the framework of institutional evaluation and the required counselling interview. Moreover, there was no support for the client-centered tenant that evaluation per se is harmful to the establishment of facilitative interpersonal relationships. Finally, the highly speculative correlational data appear to indicate that within the context of the required counselling interview empathic understanding rather than confrontation might be more a therapeutic approach.

Client functioning

While there were nonsignificant differences with respect to the means of counsellors across treatments for empathy and confrontation, the clients' reported feelings of satisfaction did not show the same fluctuation. That is, the differences in the relative satisfaction levels reported by clients appear to be a function of the treatment conditions per se and did not appear to be counsellor-mediated. On the other hand, ratings of counselling climate were unrelated to the evaluative treatments and counsellor functioning.

Thus, there was some support for the nonevaluation--client-centered position that evaluation, rather than nonevaluation, would reduce feelings of comfort and satisfaction. However, the support is qualified, because the ratings of clients for both treatments were generally positive, even the client satisfaction scores. Therefore, it is possible that evaluation may only be a minor irritant and not a

major obstacle in the path of counsellor-client rapport. The highly speculative correlational data cited above also support this suggestion, but the effects, extent, or depth of client's dissatisfaction or apprehension experienced as a consequence of evaluation can only be a topic for speculation and cannot be determined from the data.

In the client-centered position evaluation and threat are usually seen as synonymous (Patterson, 1971). Therefore, it was expected that clients would feel freer to express their emotions in the nonevaluative than in the evaluative treatment. There was no support for this hypothesis. In the light of the overall positive reactions towards both treatments, and the difference between treatments with respect to rated feelings of comfort and satisfaction, the fact that most clients did not apparently explore their feelings, especially in nonevaluation interviews, was totally unexpected.

It should be kept in mind that client-ratings were probably elevated because clients were not told that their ratings would be kept confidential. However, there were other factors which could have accounted for discrepancies between client-ratings and interview behavior. In spite of all the precautions taken to inform Ss in the nonevaluative group that they would be making their own decisions about returning to university, many Ss seemed to feel that there would be "strings attached" to this condition. It was noted by the author that questions during the initial phase of the interviews appeared to reflect the Ss' apprehension about what was "really" going to happen to them. Thus, it seems likely that many Ss in the nonevaluative group did not trust the information they received, and as a result they could have stifled their participation.

In addition, the depth of self-exploration scale did not appear to be particularly relevant to the interview. In therapy the client's emotional responsiveness is crucial. However, in the situation under study other factors would seem to be more relevant, such as long-range goals, tendencies towards procrastination, problems within the family, study habits, etc. There may have been an emotional component wrapped up in all of these phenomena, but in most of the rated segments the counsellors' probings did not appear to be directed towards this component. In fact, only about 30 percent of the segments were rated as personal.

Arbuckle (1965) and Grummon (1965) have suggested that self-referral is a necessary precondition for effective counselling. Therefore, it is also possible that the low depth of self-exploration scores in both treatments may reflect a lack of client readiness or a defensive predisposition towards required counselling.

Finally, it was noted above that counsellor experience, biases, and training may have affected rapport. All of the counsellors informally reported experiencing a moderate amount of stress and dislike for the required interview--whether evaluative or nonevaluative. All of the counsellors preferred working with self-referred clients. It has been suggested that counselling reluctant clients, as many of the Ss in this study appeared to present themselves, seems to involve a somewhat different approach and/or different skills than working with clients who voluntarily seek help (Calia, 1966). In this study counsellor experience, supervision, and training may not have been adequate to overcome counsellor biases towards the required interviews, and low client self-exploration may be a by-product of one or all of

these conditions.

Conclusions

Evaluation and nonevaluation have been viewed as basic tensions within man (Stott, 1973). These tensions reflect a polarization of viewpoints within the profession. However, an empirical examination of these issues within counselling did not produce a one-to-one correspondence with counsellor functioning or client depth of self-exploration. The two poles did seem to coincide with clients' reported feelings of satisfaction with evaluation receiving the lower rating.

If client comfort and satisfaction as measured by the Counselling Evaluation Inventory are considered to be primary goals of counselling, and this is not the author's position, then nonevaluation rather than evaluation would seem to be a more acceptable alternative. However, the effects of evaluation will ultimately be considered within the framework of institutional decision-making and gains and losses to both the institution and the client should be analyzed (Cronbach & Glesser, 1965). In this regard, client comfort and satisfaction are seen as only one piece of the puzzle.

In this study the single significant finding should be viewed in relation to other less statistically prominent data, such as the low client self-exploration scores in the evaluative and nonevaluative treatments, counsellor variability across treatments on the confrontation and empathy scales, and the clients' generally positive ratings for both treatments. In addition, it should be noted that methodological problems cast a shadow over all of the findings.

As noted above, the overall positive ratings for the client satisfaction and counselling climate scores in the evaluative and non-

evaluative treatments might have been attributable to safeguards that appeared to be inadequate to ensure the confidentiality of clients' answer sheets. These ratings may also reflect positive attitudes on the part of clients to both treatments.

Within the client-centered tradition it has been assumed that the absence of threat in the form of evaluation would positively affect both the clients' ratings and depth of self-exploration. Rogers (1957; 1975) has stated that self-exploration is a critical component in the therapeutic process. An absence of treatment effects on this variable, when considered with the fairly positive client reactions towards the interviews, raise questions as to the ultimate effect of evaluation on client functioning and consequently counsellor-client rapport. That is, does evaluation reduce satisfaction to the extent of blocking or impeding rapport, or does the client's rated dissatisfaction with the evaluative treatment represent only a minor irritation or mild situational stress? Unfortunately, these questions cannot be answered by the data collected for this study.

Low client depth of self-exploration in both treatments seems to indicate that the behavior of clients was detached, guarded, and/or mechanical. Several of the raters described the clients' behavior as superficial, and the author who listened to all of the sessions, most of them in their entirety, would agree with these observations. While this evidence can hardly be considered conclusive, it seems to be sufficient to question the value of these interviews to the clients.

As noted above, low client self-exploration might simply be a product of required counselling (Arbuckle, 1965); however, the results of the Brown and Calia (1968) study seem to indicate that counsellor func-

tioning was the critical ingredient in initial, required interviews. It is the author's hypothesis that counsellors in this study adopted the same approach (mostly reflective and/or empathic) to required, evaluative interviews as they employed in self-referred personal and vocational counselling. Calia (1966) has suggested that required and client-initiated counselling situations demand different approaches and/or skills. Therefore, the low self-exploration scores might be attributable to counsellor functioning.

If within a required counselling or an evaluative setting special skills and/or behaviors are necessary for effective counselling (Calia, 1966), then from an educational and administrative perspective precautions should be taken to ensure that junior staff members and other trainees (students) receive adequate training and supervision in these areas. The effects of counsellor training on their subsequent performance in required or evaluative settings would seem to be a fruitful area for future research. It should be noted that the implications of such research would not be confined to the setting in this study. Tyler (1963) suggested that required counselling might be the most appropriate method of initiating contacts with minority groups and students from deprived environments. She notes that these people often need professional help but do not generally seek it.

In this study counsellor training, experience, and biases appeared to be incongruent with evaluation and required counselling. The variability of the counsellor-offered conditions of empathy and confrontation across treatments seems to add further weight to the suggestion that counsellors are the fulcrum that will determine the effectiveness of institutional programs. In this light, it would be interesting to

compare two matched groups of high functioning, experienced counselors: one pro-evaluation, the other anti-evaluation, within an evaluative and nonevaluative setting.

In the literature on counselling there are many testaments concerning the relative effectiveness of one counsellor or group of counsellors as compared to another counsellor and/or process. However, from an institutional perspective the counsellor as a mediating variable has received very little attention. There have been discussions about required versus self-initiated interviews, evaluation versus nonevaluation and testing versus no measurement. Counsellor compliance has been more or less assumed or not considered in detail. These findings, added to the work of Brown and Calia (1968) seem to suggest that the counsellor as a mediating variable may be as important or more important than the institutional conditions imposed upon counselling. Thus, evaluation and nonevaluation seem to be important issues within and between counsellors, but there is reason to question the importance of these constructs without examining counsellor mediation at the same time.

If counselling idiosyncrasies are considered along with institutional conditions, then complexity is added to the task of the researcher, counselling educationalist and administrator. It seems clear that the good-bad, black-white positions on evaluation and nonevaluation need to be focused with respect to institutional, client, and counsellor variables, and that the latter seems to be pivotal. A few tentative steps in this direction have been taken (Brown & Calia, 1968; Mann, 1971)—more should follow.

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APPENDIX A

Empathy Scale

Level 1

The verbal and behavioral expressions of the first person either do not attend to or detract significantly from the verbal and behavioral expressions of the second person (s) in that they communicate significantly less of the second person's feelings than the second person has communicated himself.

Level 2

While the first person responds to the expressed feelings of the second person (s), he does so in such a way that he subtracts noticeable affect from the communications of the second person.

Level 3

The expressions of the first person in response to the expressed feelings of the second person (s) are essentially interchangeable with those of the second person in that they express essentially the same affect and meaning.

Level 4

The responses of the first person add noticeably to the expressions of the second person (s) in such a way as to express feelings a level deeper than the second person was able to express himself.

Level 5

The first person's responses add significantly to the feeling and meaning of the expressions of the second person (s) in such a way as to (1) accurately express feelings levels below what the person himself was able to express or (2) in the event of on going deep self-exploration on the second person's part to be fully with him in his deepest moments.

APPENDIX B

Depth of Self-Exploration

Level 1

The second person does not discuss personally relevant material, either because he has had no opportunity to do such or because he is actively evading the discussion even when it is introduced by the first person.

Level 2

The second person responds with discussion to the introduction of personally relevant material by the first person but does so in a mechanical manner and without the demonstration of emotional feelings.

Level 3

The second person voluntarily introduces discussions of personally relevant material but does so in a mechanical manner and without the demonstration of emotional feeling.

Level 4

The second person voluntarily introduces discussions of personally relevant material with both spontaneity and emotional proximity.

Level 5

The second person actively and spontaneously engages in an inward probing to discover new feelings and experiences about himself and his world.

APPENDIX C

Confrontation

Level 1

The verbal and behavioral expressions of the helper disregard the discrepancies in the helpee's behavior (ideal versus real self, insight versus action, helper versus helpee's experiences).

Level 2

The verbal and behavioral expressions of the helper disregard the discrepancies in the helpee's behavior.

Level 3

The verbal and behavioral expressions of the helper, while open to discrepancies in the helpee's behavior, do not relate directly and specifically to these discrepancies.

Level 4

The verbal and behavioral expressions of the helper attend directly and specifically to the discrepancies in the helpee's behavior.

Level 5

The verbal and behavioral expressions of the helper are keenly and continually attuned to the discrepancies in the helpee's behavior.

COUNSELLING EVALUATION INVENTORY

1. * I distrusted the counsellor.
2. *** The counsellor gave the impression of "feeling at ease".
3. * I felt the counsellor accepted me as an individual.
4. ** I felt at ease with the counsellor.
5. ** The counsellor helped me to see how taking tests would be helpful to me.
6. *** In opening our conversations, the counsellor was relaxed and at ease.
7. * The counsellor acted as if he had a job to do and didn't care how he accomplished it.
8. *** The counsellor acted uncertain of himself.
9. * The counsellor acted cold and distant.
10. * The counsellor was very patient.
11. *** The counsellor was awkward in starting our interviews.
12. ** The counsellor's comments helped me to see more clearly what I need to do to gain my objectives in life.
13. ** I felt comfortable in my interviews with the counsellor.
14. *** The counsellor seemed restless while talking to me.
15. ** The counsellor's discussion of test results was helpful to me.
16. * The counsellor insisted on being right always.
17. * The counsellor acted as though he thought my concerns and problems were important to him.
18. ** Other students could be helped by talking with counsellors.
19. * I believe the counsellor had a genuine desire to be of service to me.
20. * In our talks, the counsellor acted as if he were better than I.
21. ** I felt satisfied as a result of my talks with the counsellor.

* Counselling Climate ** Client Satisfaction *** Counsellor Comfort

Items are answered according to the following categories:

Always, Often, Sometimes, Rarely, Never.

APPENDIX E

Dear

For this Summer only, the Student Counselling Services has obtained permission from three of the Faculties to evaluate various methods of obtaining re-admission by those who have been absent from the University for at least a year, and who are now seeking re-admission.

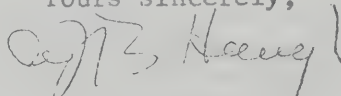
You, along with other selected students, will have an opportunity to take psychological tests in the ordinary way, but, while a Counsellor will see you and will discuss your plans with you, as well as the possible meaning of the psychological tests, the decision will remain with you to decide whether or not you will seek re-admission. While your application must subsequently be approved by the Dean of the Faculty to which you seek re-admission, ordinarily your decision will be honored, unless there is some factor that is not currently known to us; for example, if you have twice been required to withdraw from the University, or if you should lack some matriculation subject which is essential for the Faculty to which you are applying.

However, you should understand that the policies concerning those who are re-admitted after being required to withdraw will apply. In short, in the next session you must pass all subjects and must achieve an average of not less than 5.0.

Should you prefer not to be in what is essentially an experimental procedure, for it has not hitherto been tried at this University, you are free to so indicate. In that event, you will take the tests that are usually given, will be interviewed by a Counsellor, and the Counsellor will subsequently make a recommendation to the Dean. The essential difference is that in the experimental group to which you have been assigned, the Counsellor will not make a recommendation to the Dean. The fact that you choose not to be a part of the experimental group will not prejudice the appraisal made by the Counsellor who sees you.

It would be helpful if you would tell us whether you wish to be evaluated by a counsellor. Your silence on this matter will indicate to us that you wish to make this decision without a counsellor's recommendation.

Yours sincerely,


A.J.B. Hough
Director.

AJEH/mb

GROUP "B"

APPENDIX F

Vocational:

Content centering around life's goals, vocational and faculty choice will be scored here. Most of the conversations about vocational interest tests will also be scored here. For example:

"The test suggests that you would like to work with people."

"Your interests seem to coincide with those in business."

Discussions of how much money a student would make; or how she or he would feel about "shyness" in relation to standing in front of a class or merchandising would be appropriately coded Vocational. Faculty choice themes are put under this heading rather than Educational. If the central issue is what went on in the past in Faculty X, then the item should be scored Educational. However, if the orientation is towards the future (I think I would be better off in X than Y), then it should be scored here.

Administrative:

Dialogue in which the majority of conversation refers to the procedures for readmission and/or course selection will be scored under this heading. Content themes will include the following: "Who do I see about courses?" "How long before I hear from the Dean?" "When will I know if I am accepted?" "Counsellors only make recommendations - the rest is up to the Dean." "I will write a letter..."

This category differs from the one labelled Scholastic in that it does not focus on past difficulties or problems anticipated with respect to academic performance. Instead, the focus is on the mechanics of getting into university, selecting courses, or explaining the special conditions under which the S is being interviewed, etc.

Educational:

Academic effectiveness is the main characteristic of items placed here. Themes, such as how things will be different this time or what went wrong last time, how to study effectively, etc. are all included under this rubric. For example, "I won't take a part-time job." "Moving away from the noise at home will sure improve my ability to concentrate." "No more bar this time around." "The test results suggest that you would have difficulty with report writing, because your vocabulary seems to be weak." In sum, various approaches to increasing effectiveness or reviewing what went wrong are the critical elements in assigning a segment to this category.

APPENDIX F (Cont'd)

Testing:

Discussions about the tests per se, such as the usefulness of tests, why do I have to take them, etc. are coded under this heading. Not included in this category will be dialogues concerning the client's personality or vocational interests based on the test material. For example, if a counsellor tells a client that the test results suggest he is passive and the resulting discussion centers around his feelings about the counsellor's statement, then the sequence would be scored Personal and not Testing. However, if the aforementioned statement led to a discussion of the validity of the CPI, then it would be scored in this category. Themes such as "Why are all these tests American?" "How can you tell anything from those crazy true and false questions?" are scored Testing.

Personal:

When the focus is on the integrity, feelings, what's happening in the here and now between counsellor and client, personality and/or overall adjustment of the client then the sequence should be recorded here. For example, "How do you feel about yourself?" "You seem to be pretty uncomfortable with what I just said." "I have a lot of trouble meeting new people, especially boys." There will be a great deal of overlap between this category and all of the others with the possible exception of chit-chat. If the dialogue refers to a or behavior pattern that keeps the client away from the library, then the sequence is scored Educational not Personal. However, if placed in the context of life in general, then it belongs in this category.

Chit-Chat:

Idle conversation about hockey, the weather, do you know XX from Calgary etc. will be coded here.

N/A (Not Applicable) - give a one or two word description.

APPENDIX G

Table 16

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF
VARIANCE FOR THE COUNSELLOR
COMFORT FACTOR

Source	DF	MS	F	P
A (Treatments)	1	70.63	2.16	.14
B (Counsellors)	3	44.11	1.34	.26
A X B	3	20.51	.63	.60
Error	78	32.69		

Table 17

MEAN EMPATHY, DEPTH OF SELF-EXPLORATION
AND CONFRONTATION SCORES FROM THE BEGINNING,
MIDDLE AND END OF INTERVIEWS

Scale	Beginning (T_1)	Middle (T_2)	End (T_3)
Empathy	2.7	2.7	2.6
Self-Exploration	1.8	1.7	1.7
Confrontation	2.4	2.4	2.3

APPENDIX H
Table 18
SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF
VARIANCE FOR QUESTION THIRTEEN
OF THE COUNSELLING EVALUATION INVENTORY

Source	DF	MS	F	P
A (Treatments)	1	8.4	7.9	.006
B (Counsellors)	3	.9	.9	.444
A X B	3			
Error	67			

APPENDIX

Table 19

A SUMMARY OF THE
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN
SELECTED DEPENDENT VARIABLES

	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>
1. C.S. (CEI)	1.0	-.19	.07	.02	.09	.03	.11	.03	-.24	.10	.20
2. Interview Length		1.0	.31*	.22*	.39*	.03	.27*	.22*	-.22	-.10	-.12
3. Empathy T ₁			1.0	.35*	.30*	.17	-.08	-.07	-.15	.15	-.08
4. Empathy T ₂				1.0	.30*	-.03	.37*	.09	.01	.07	-.27*
5. Empathy T ₃					1.0	.03	.19	.40*	-.05	-.15	.10
6. Self-Exploration T ₁						1.0	.25*	.32*	-.05	.13	.18
7. Self-Exploration T ₂							1.0	.26*	-.08	-.05	-.16
8. Self-Exploration T ₃								1.0	.11	.08	.04
9. Confrontation T ₁									1.0	.32*	.13
10. Confrontation T ₂										1.0	.00
11. Confrontation T ₃											1.0

* $p < .05$ Note: For confrontation scores the N per cell varies considerably.

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